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ABSTRACT

The first four articles of the Spring, 1981 issue of this journal focus on aspects of vocabulary instruction in elementary schools. The first article provides teachers with a sourcebook for teaching vocabulary. Weaknesses in vocabulary instruction and specific activities for developing vocabulary in depth, including questioning strategies, techniques utilizing semantic space, and structural analysis, are identified. Exemplary introductory lessons based on Osgood's categories of meaning responses are provided. Word origin, word play, word cues, vocabulary reinforcement exercises in content areas, learning stations and learning centers are also discussed. In the second article, techniques and guidelines for vocabulary development activities with children who absorb vocabulary auditorily are given. The third article describes a sixth-grade teacher's use of vocabulary exercises that were based on colorful words associated with current events. The fourth article provides a vocabulary instruction evaluation scheme that includes four dimensions of vocabulary type and four methods of teaching vocabulary. The final two articles present discussions of (1) research findings concerning creativity in young children, and (2) the educational needs of rural areas of the United States. (Author/RH)

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"Vocabulary Development in the Classroom"

Rexel E. Brown, University of Evansville, Guest Editor
Winter, 1981

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Introduction

by

Rexel E. Brown
University of Evansville

Words have fascinated me since the early days of my career when I was surprised to find among my fifth-grade class a group of twelve of the most intelligent, energetic, verbal, challenging boys I would ever meet. These were the kind of kids that motivated me to put in hours of work digging out word histories, definitions, and other interesting facts about the words we met during the day. Their curiosity was indefatigable--they were never content to leave an idea or concept until they had thoroughly dissected it. Arguments over semantics were a daily occurence. At 23, I had not learned that the teacher didn't have to know everything and I was determined that I was going to keep ahead of these students.

After hours with dictionaries, thesauri and numerous books on word origin, I discovered that I would never keep ahead and would be lucky to keep even with these amateur etymologists! I learned eventually to put all that youthful energy to work and, through judicious use of enrichment assignments, survived the year. By the end of my first year I was amazed at what I had learned from them! The question that these students asked about words and the depths to which they would go when really interested, developed a life-long love affair with words and with those students at all levels who tended to nudge me out of my orbit to explore the outer limits of almost any topic. Obviously, the writers in this issue have had similar experiences with children and words. Their interest in words and children shines through their writing and indicates that my experiences were not as unique as I had thought.

I hope that the readers will take the ideas and techniques presented in these articles and use or modify them to challenge their students to search for answers much like my first class challenged me. I am convinced that teachers can produce better materials and develop better techniques than any of those found in commercial materials and indeed it is that ability that marks a good teacher.

TEACHING VOCABULARY IN THE THIRD DIMENSION.... A SOURCEBOOK FOR TEACHERS

by

Rexel E. Brown
University of Evansville

In the fifties David Russell, (1955), senior editor of The Ginn Basal Reading Series, proposed that more teaching of vocabulary be targeted at what he called the third dimension. Russell said that there is a width dimension that includes all of the words that an individual knows at least one meaning for; a height dimension which encompasses the multiple meanings that are attached to each of these words; and a depth dimension which is the individual's psychological association with each of these words. Today, depth would probably refer to the psycholinguistic nature of particular words, or to what the layman would call the "gut-level feeling" for a word. Certainly words like mother, love, liberal, conservative, and facist have an emotional factor attached to them that goes far beyond simple definitions. Present day authorities in the field of reading are similarly stressing the deeper dimensions of word knowledge through semantic maps, word feature analysis, intensity scales, and other techniques aimed at probing the inter-relationships between words and emotions. It is the purpose of this paper to give teachers insight into the reasons for this thrust and to present specific teaching techniques for their use. It seems apparent that such instruction is supported by the research in comprehension indicating vocabulary knowledge is consistently found to be one of the four or five factors related to comprehension scores. It is also clear that while the sentence may contain the complete thought of the writer, it is the knowledge of the fine shades of meaning of the individual words that leads to full communication.

Weaknesses in Vocabulary Instruction

Herbert Erdmann, a former superintendent of the Evansville-Vanderburgh School Corporation, once confided in the author that he thought teachers were, as a group, "teaching only half as good as they know how." The teacher may ask, "What's wrong with what I'm doing? I'm following the directions in the materials!" Or possibly, the teacher may say, "This is the way I was taught!" In answering such comments it is only fair to say that very little instruction in how to teach vocabulary finds its way into the materials teachers use. Some of the specific weaknesses observed by the author are:

1. Depending on Incidental Learning

If everything left to "incidental learning" was compiled and put into a curriculum guide, it would weigh more than all other such guides combined! While it is true that some words are learned this way, a plethora

of research indicates that direct teaching is the most effective way to develop vocabulary.

2. Confusion as to the Type of Vocabulary That Is Being Taught

Teachers are often unsure as to which one of the various vocabularies is being developed. Is the activity designed to develop reading (meaning) vocabulary or the listening, speaking, writing, spelling vocabularies of the children? Some instruction is based on the false assumption that words learned in one modality will transfer readily to other modalities. The assumption being that a word learned in reading will naturally find its way into the child's speaking vocabulary. While some of this does occur, research indicates that such transfer is neither easy or automatic. It is far more efficient to teach a word in the medium in which it will be used or, if transfer is the objective, exercises that are multi-modal should be developed.

3. Dependence on Commercial Materials at the Expense of Original, Teacher-Developed Materials

One of the major weaknesses of commercial materials such as the basal reader or vocabulary workbooks is that they tend to be uni-dimensional in their activities. The basal reader introduces the new vocabulary for each story in exercises that ask the child to fit the word into the context of the particular story in which it is found. In all fairness, many basal programs do bring back some of these words under the skills or enrichment step for further development, but in reality they are not given the time necessary for the deep understanding to which we refer.

Commercial materials designed for vocabulary development tend to test, rather than teach, word knowledge. Many of the activities have the student select either a definition, synonym, or antonym for a given word, thus probing what is known about the word instead of teaching any understanding of the word. The student, consequently, finds a definition fror the content of the skill-text or a definition given in a list. Neither teaches him much about the deeper meaning of the word. In the former, he only recognizes the meaning of a word, and in the latter gets a superficial knowledge of one meaning of the word. Hayakawa (1949) indicates that, on his "ladder of abstraction", a synonym is on the same level of abstraction as the word the student defines. To gain a more valuable understanding of a word, the student should be asked to move up this ladder of abstraction giving a more generic term or supraordinate term. For example, money and cash are synonymous and on a like level, but asking the student to select a higher level of abstraction such as riches or wealth requires more knowledge of the relationship than simple parallel or interchangeable meanings.

Because of their expense, more valuable exercises such as those suggested in this sourcebook are rarely included since they require the student to write, draw, or do other creative activities that call for consummable materials requiring careful, time-consuming evaluation.

4. Selection of Words to be Taught

There is also a tendency to select too many words with little regard for their utility. Authors of commercial materials write as though esoteric, multisyllabic, rarely used words indicate vocabulary power. Au contraire! The true measure of a person's vocabulary is the preciseness with which he uses his repertoire of words, saying exactly what he means in the most interesting way. Commercial skill-texts, both of the "shotgun" and "rifle" format, have respective areas of weakness. The "shotgun" type (covers multi-skills in each lesson) tend to suffer from shallowness, while the "rifle" type (specific skills series) tend to be dull, routine, exhausting, and simplistic in their design.

Teachers prefer such commercial materials even though they recognize these weaknesses. The pressures of the crowded curriculum force them to search for materials that may be done with little supervision and are easy to score. Given little time or help for planning and developing their own materials, they must depend on the materials for knowledge as to which words to teach and how they should be taught. Consequently, they teach long lists of words in dull lessons which may or may not be the words children need at that particular point in their development.

Which Words Should We Teach?

Teachers assume that the words selected for study in commercial materials have been carefully researched and the vocabulary has commonality across texts. Such is not the case. Basal readers offer some control through selecting words used in some stories, especially in the first grade where they are taken from a word list. But as we move up through the grades, the vocabulary is less controlled, depending on the words used by the authors for deeper study.

Caution must be taken, however, since basals are targeted for the average child, and the words selected may not challenge the above average students. Research indicates that these are the children who benefit most by direct instruction in vocabulary!

Content area textbooks, on the other hand, give the teachers more help by selecting key concepts for pre-teaching, study, and reinforcement. It only remains for the teacher to use them correctly. However, skill-texts selected for vocabulary development, whether broad or narrow in their scope, tend to give little research to support their selection and very little help in how to teach the words.

Some authorities have developed techniques for selecting words to be studied in depth. Dale (1971) suggests that words be selected from a "twilight zone". These would be words from stages 2 and 3 in the levels of comprehension shown in Figure 1.

FIGURE 1

Level 1	I never saw it before.
Level 2	I've heard of it, but I don't know what it means.
Level 3	I recognize it in context--it has something to do with....
Level 4	I know it.

Dale suggests that words are continually moving from zone 1 into zone 2. These may come from the students reading, listening and/or studying in the content areas. He suggests that the teacher concentrate on moving words from zone 3 into zone 4 i.e., words "almost-known" into "known" words. The author would suggest that we need to add a fifth zone to Dale's chart that would indicate the "depth" or psycholinguistic level. The diagram below shows this extension.

FIGURE 2

Level 1	I never saw it before. (Some words should be taught even from this zone.)
Level 2	I've heard of it, but I don't know what it means. (Definitely words should be selected from this zone for further study.)
Level 3	I recognize it in context--it has something to do with.... (The author agrees with Dale that this is a fruitful area for study.)
Level 4	I know it. (Here we need to measure the extent to which it is known. Does he know multiple meanings? How deep is his understanding of the concept?)
Level 5	I know it very well. (The student can use it with precision and knows the emotional implication attached to the word.)

Dale and O'Rourke's (1979) untapped resource The Living Word Vocabulary is another source that must be considered. Words in this book have been tested at grade levels 4,6,8,10,12, and 13 on multi-level meanings. Percentages of students knowing each word and each meaning are given.

The teacher can compare the word knowledge of his class with national norms both at the width and height dimension mentioned previously. Since this is a list of common terms used in writing, study of them will also lead to improvement in preciseness of use in composition. Further in-depth study of the word, using speaking and writing, will further strengthen the students usage of the word in other modalities. For the pragmatic instructor, such words are frequently found in standardized tests, thus their study may lead to higher vocabulary and comprehension scores.

Content area vocabulary may be selected from lists of words given either in the introductory paragraphs or follow-up activities if the book is well written and offers such aids. The assumption here is that the author is knowledgeable about the key concepts of his area. A more effective technique would be for the teacher to do a page-by-page analysis of the chapter selecting those terms which he feels will cause his class difficulty and which are of vital importance to their understanding of the topic. Vine (1967) has developed a vocabulary analysis chart just for this purpose.

Some specific guidelines for selection of words to be taught are given below:

1. Select words that will be used throughout the student's life as far as possible. Avoid rarely used words.

2. Select words that will be of immediate use. Avoid words that may not be important until adult life.

3. Select words based on key word parts that will automatically increase the size of a student's vocabulary.

4. Select words that will be useful in multiple modalities and in several different subject areas.

5. Select words that have documented histories. These have the ability to make vocabulary study more interesting.

6. Select "power words" that are found in newspapers, magazines, television, speaking, etc. almost daily. Words referring to actions, emotions, personalities, and ideas lend themselves to analysis and certainly qualify for deep study.

7. Select words that meet the above criteria and also lend themselves to the types of activities suggested in this article so that both the product and process are achieved.

Specific Activities for Developing Vocabulary in Depth

1. Questioning Strategies

Asking probing questions about words helps the student understand multiple meanings of words, shades of meaning, usage, pronunciation, specific features of the word, relationships between it and other words (its semantic map), and other interesting features that might be missed. It also indicates to the student the degree of interest the teacher has in the word and the degree to which the teacher wants it understood. Two specific techniques are given here and others appear after the introduction of specific techniques appearing later in this article.

One of the simplest questioning strategies was developed by Botel (1959). He suggests teachers ask questions using some of the following questions and guides:

What is the key word in this heading? Why?

What does _____ mean as used in this sentence?

What other meanings do you already know for _____?

How many meanings does your dictionary give for _____? Which meaning is appropriate in this story?

Botel (1959) also gives labels for questions that parallel somewhat those given before, but add several different dimensions:

The definition question

Here the teacher asks the student what a certain word means in a specific sentence. Example: What does foot mean in this sentence? "They stopped to rest at the foot of the hill."

The semantic question

The student stretches his knowledge of multiple meanings in answering this type question. Example: What other meanings do you know for the word foot?

The synonym question

The student is asked to give a word of somewhat equal meaning although it is understood that no two words are exactly alike in their meaning. Example: What other word(s) can be substituted in the sentence above for the word foot without changing the meaning? At this point we might digress and suggest the development of a gradient or intensity scale showing why there is a specific word for a specific meaning.

In the sentence: "He laughed at my anecdote." The student might substitute chuckled or roared, but this would not teach him the fine line of distinction needed for complete understanding. It would be better to have students suggest several words that could fit i.e., chuckled, roared, hee-hawed, guffawed, giggled, tittered, and then discuss the degree to which the joke was considered funny. These words would then be placed in their order of intensity.

The antonym question

The student is asked to supply a word that would be at the opposite end of the intensity scale discussed above or a word that makes the sentence mean the exact opposite. Example: "The boy was angry when his mother gave him a dime." While the student might suggest happy as the antonym, he could also include words like pleased, perturbed, etc. To get an exact opposite intensity scale should be useful.

The homonym question

The student is asked if any other word sounds the same as the underlined word but has a different meaning. Example: He set a record in the 100-meter race. At this point the teacher might want to discuss the pronunciation of such words as record whenever they appear as a noun or verb.

Another questioning strategy is the refinement of definition technique. In this method the teacher asks the child to define a specific term such as apple and then helps him refine his definition until it is as exact as the student is capable of developing. The scenario for such a strategy follows:

T. "What is an apple?"

S. "It's round and you eat it."

T. "Is there anything else that is round and that you eat that is not an apple?"

S. "Orange, peach, pear...."

T. "How could you change your definition so that it includes only apples?"

S. "Well, it's round and you eat it. It is usually sweet in taste...."

The dialogue continues until the student has a definition that includes anything that is an apple and excludes only those things that are not apples.

Other questioning strategies may be formulated from semantic maps, word feature analysis, McCullough's chart (1962), Osgood's (1953) dimensions of children's meaning space, structured overviews and many other techniques. Some of these will be demonstrated in following sections of this paper

2. Techniques Utilizing Semantic Space

In recent years vocabulary instruction strategies have focused on semantic mapping, children's meaning space, word feature analysis, and other schemata arrangements although, historically, McCullough (1962) was using a similar approach long before such work appeared in the literature. McCullough's chart (Figure 3) of the thought patterns of the author and the reader lends itself to exercises that explore the many dimensions of meaning for a word even as simple as apple.

FIGURE 3

Whole - part: tree, pie, apple sauce; pulp, seed, skin

Cause - effect: pollination, stomach ache

Sequential: seed, tree, blossom, fruit; time from seed to fruit

Comparison - Contrast: apple, pear; apple, peach; apple, banana

Coordination - subordination: elements for life: sun, water, chemicals, processes for production; planting, plowing, fertilizing, irrigating, pollination, picking, sorting, packing, shipping

Theories: in relation to cultivation; to health: "An apple a day...."

Law and principles: falling bodies

Generalizations: Apples are grown in many places in the world where conditions are favorable.

Summarizations: Apples grown in the West are Gravenstein, Macintosh, Delicious, etc.

Definition: An apple is a round edible fruit.... (Definitions are selected descriptive items.)

Classification: Fruit--apple, quince, pear, etc.

Procedures: for growing apples, harvesting apples, cooking, etc.

Observations:
Behaviors: reddens, softens, drips, drops
Qualities: number, amount, texture, flavor, moisture, solidity, size, shape, color, sweetness, acidity, odor, sound
Uses: for food, housing (worms), jelling, decoration, hunting (worms - robin) history of human uses

The word as a word, synonyms, antonyms, homonyms
Derivation: from the Anglo-Saxon: aeppel
Derivatives: apples (plural)
Multiple meanings: tree, fruit, design, color
figurative meanings: You are the apple of my eye.
Uses: the apple (noun); the apple pudding (adjective)
Pronounciation: ap'el

Uses in literature: Snow White, William Tell

McCullough doesn't specify teacher activities to be developed with the chart, but it suggests numerous possibilities. For example:

1. A teacher could make posters with an example of one word taken through each "dimension" for the students to use as a guide. (For future games, worksheets, activities....)

2. Game - draw a vocabulary word on a slip of paper from a hat. Have the first child give an example of one dimension of that word then pass the word on to the next person who will state an example of another dimension (continuing to pass the word around the class).

3. Class activity - child picks a word card from a "deck" that teacher holds out. He tells what he immediately associates with that word or gives his definition of that word. He gets to hold on to that card if he answers correctly.

4. Cause-effect - Question-answer--Child can choose a word and propose questions to the teacher or class such as "How does an animal move?" Teacher can explain this, illustrate on board....

5. Charades - Children can act out dimensions of a word.

6. Riddles made by teacher.

   I am a vegetable. (whole-part)
   I am a root. (classification)
   But I am not a potato or a beet. (subordination)
   Sun, water, and soil make me grow. (cause-effect)
   I am sold in a bunch. (Qualifies)
   I am orange.
   I have a bushy green top. (carrot)

7. Habits & actions: charades

8. Conditions: Collage of conditions - cut pictures and words from magazines.

9. Whole-part--Put the word in a paper bag. Cut out pictures, parts, or words pertaining to word in bag. Guess what is in bag.

10. Uses: Picture analogies rather than word analogies.

11. Sentences about a monkey: Memory game--
    Man-- A man has a hand.
    A man has a hand and leg.
    A man has a hand, leg, and art, etc.

12. Chaining game.

13. Synonyms and Antonyms: Checkerboard game with words-in order to move-say whether pair is same or opposite.

14. Place relations - Write all words you can think of that are in this place (or draw or cut out pictures).

15. Picture Words (Qualities)
    Paste a picture of the object the word names in the center of a piece of paper. Have student list all the qualities of that object by writing them on the paper around the picture. Have students circle the words they think they spelled correctly. Then they can use the dictionary to check to see if they are right.

16. Definitions
    Fold a paper into eight squares and write a new vocabulary word in each square. (Put word in whatever square they choose so all are not the same.) Teacher gives clues from several dimensions of McCullough's Chart for the words on the paper. When the student thinks they know which word fits the clues that are given, they cover that word with a marker. When a row of squares are covered across or down, the child says "Definitions" or "Dimensions" perhaps. Check to see if the card has been marked correctly.

17. Words That Go Together
List groups of four words on a piece of paper. Three of the words in each group should be alike in some way. Student should circle the three that go together. Words that describe several dimensions from McCullough's Chart could be used. Ex. (monkey)

(Coordination-subordination)			
monkey	tractor	kangaroo	camel
(Qualities)			
hairy	manlike	beautiful	chattery
(Habits and actions)			
crawl	jump	hang	climb
(Place relationships)			
trees	jungle	zoo	farm

Students might be assigned any one of the dimensions (at their level of sophistication) to discuss in class. Any part of the chart could be assigned to the student to develop a semantic map or structured overview. Illustrations such as charts, diagrams, and detailed explanations could be generated from the chart.

Osgood's (1953) categories of meaning responses lend themselves to experimentation and the development of unique and effective exercises by the intelligent teacher. Evanechko (1972) charted these categories for his study. They are explained in Figure 4.

FIGURE 4

Children's Meaning Categories

1. Synonym. The members of each word pair have exactly or very nearly the same referent:

   e.g. big----large
   steal--rob

2. Similarity. The members of each word pair are similar through being aligned on some dimension, with the referent of the right hand member occupying a more extreme position on this dimension:

   e.g. small--tiny
   hungry-starving

3. Supraordinate. The left-hand member denotes a common class of which the right-hand concept is a member.

   e.g. bird---sparrow
   fruit--apple

4. Coordinate. The members of each pair refer to familiar members, of a familiar class:

e.g. chair----table
beets----peas

5. Attribute. The right-hand member of each pair refers to a quality or attribute generally recognized as characterizing the object denoted by the left-hand member.

e.g. lemon----sour
turtle---slow

6. Contrast. The members of each word pair refer to opposite ends of a continuum:

e.g. hard----easy
loud----soft

7. Action of. The right-hand member of each pair is an intransitive verb denoting concrete action associated with and performed by the agent referred to by the left hand member:

e.g. dog----bark
baby---cry

8. Action-upon. The left-hand member of each pair is a transitive verb denoting a concrete action associated with and performed upon the object referred to by the right-hand member:

e.g. sweep---floor
throw---ball

9. Whole-Part. The right-hand member of each pair refers to a familiar object recognized as important parts of a familiar whole denoted by the left-hand member.

e.g. bird----wing
hand----finger

10. Part-part. The members of each pair refer to familiar objects which are parts of familiar whole:

e.g. wall----floor
arm-----head

11. Common use. The right-hand member of each pair denotes an object associated with and upon by the agent referred to by the left-hand member.

e.g. farmer----tractor
dog-------bone

12. Use of. The right-hand member of each unit denotes a use made of the left-hand member.

e.g. orange----you eat it
envelope--you put letters in it

13. Repetition. The right-hand member of each unit is a repetition of the concept referred to by the left-hand member:

e.g. drink----you drink water
tap------you tap on the wall

14. Contiguity. The left-hand member of the unit is defined by direct concrete interaction of place, time or activity with the right-hand member.

e.g. apple----grows on a tree
late-----you can see by the clock

15. Free association. The members of the unit are free associates.

e.g. carry----heavy
enjoy----funny

16. Connotation. The right-hand member of each pair connotes a relationship with the left hand member.

e.g. royal----strong
modern---good

17. Analysis. The right-hand member is an analysis of the left-hand member indicating certain dimensions of function of this concept:

e.g. rule----having power over people
lengthen-make a thing longer by adding to it

18. Synthesis. The right-hand member defines the left-hand member by stating its relationship with other concepts commonly associated with it:

e.g. acorn-----from an oak tree
bunk------it has two levels

19. Extension of a class (Implication) The right-hand member of the unit gives examples of concepts to which the left-hand member might refer implying a degree of familiarity with the concept:

e.g. bugs----insects and flies
farming-crops and animals

20. Denotation in Context. The left-hand member is defined by use in context:

e.g. sharpen---sharpen the knife till it cuts well
bitten----bitten by a snake

21. Ostensive Definition. The right-hand member defines the left-hand member largely on the basis of experience:

e.g. tickle---you make someone laugh
selfish--all for yourself

22. Generic Definitions. The right-hand member denotes the common class to which the left-hand member belongs:

e.g. kindle----burn
cup-------dinnerware

23. Class membership implied. The right-hand phrase attempts to bridge the gap between general and specific by using phrases such as "a kind of," "sort of" or "like a":

e.g. cone----like an ice-cream cone
stool---like a chair

24. Intension of a class. (Genus et Differentia). The right-hand member states the class as well as the distinguishing features of the left-hand member:

e.g. sipped----
drank a little at a time

notice--see and remember

It is quite possible to take any of these categories and develop vocabulary exercises from them. These should vary with the age and intelligence of the class since the categories vary in degree of abstractness from the easy (5) attribute to the difficult (3) supraordinate. Indeed, Payne (1968) has done just that. As a fifth grade teacher, she developed a year's vocabulary unit based on many of the dimensions on this scale.

Payne suggests beginning by showing how meaning can be attached to a symbol in a variety of ways using the child's experiences with words as the basis for the first lesson. These would be done together orally at first. Her introductory lesson is shown in Figure 5.

FIGURE 5

Aim of the unit: To develop meaning based on the child's experience with the word.

Introductory Lesson

Aim: To demonstrate to children that there are several ways in which one attaches meaning to words.

Teacher writes on the board:

pig	-	fat	-	quality
	-	squeals	-	what it does
	-	has curly tail, pink skin	-	description of parts
	-	we get pork from the pig	-	common use
	-	for eating	-	use of
	-	lives in a sty	-	where it lives
sweep	-	floor	-	action upon
	-	housewife	-	common use
	-	sweep the mat	-	repetition
	-	with a brush	-	action

The children can then give oral responses to describe such words as clown, throw. The responses may be written on the board, and the teacher can categorize them according to the different ways the child expresses meaning.

e.g. - Clown -
- quality of: amusing, funny, silly.
- what he does: laughs, fools around.
- description of parts: funny costume, red nose, long shoes.
- use: to make people laugh.
- where: works in a circus.

The first lesson should be completely oral so that the children can concentrate on the different strategies of meaning rather than worry about writing skills.

Further lessons over the year would take those categories within range of the classes understanding and concentrate exclusively on them. Shown in Figure 6 and Figure 7 are exercises showing how she developed the categories of attribute (5) and whole-part (9).

FIGURE 6

Aim: To focus the child's attention on one aspect of meaning - attribute or quality of the words described.

Introduction: The teacher refers to the last lesson and asks the children if they can recall any of the different ways of relating meaning to a word. After the class has responded, she then tells the children they are going to look at one way of relating to a word.

She writes the following frame on the board:

Lemon is sour.

Sugar is_____(sweet)
Lead is_____(heavy)
Rain is_____(wet)

Teacher draws from the class the generalization that these three words tell about some quality of the object. If the children give a response to lead as metal, accept the response. (It does tell us something about lead, but ask the child what the response to the first sentence in the frame would have to be (Lemon is a fruit)).

Ask the class to complete the following exercise.

1. Glass is
2. Ice is
3. Blubber is
4. A star is
5. A breeze is
6. An eagle is
7. A bear is
8. A frog is
9. A dinosaur is
10. A nuisance is
11. Cement is
12. A basketball is
13. Gum is
14. A bone is
15. A pillow is
16. Fog is
17. A turtle is
18. An ape is
19. A monkey is
20. Homework is

Allow the children to use the dictionary if they wish, but instruct them not to use the same word twice. The exercise may be marked orally in order to demonstrate that there may be several correct responses to the same question.

For example: Glass - transparent
- fragile
- breakable

Additional Activities for Enrichment

1. The children who finish could be asked to supply a second answer.

2. Make out some additional items for the rest of the class to be answered orally.

To conclude the lesson, the teacher should elicit the response that all these words describe the quality of the object or animal.

FIGURE 7

Aim: To demonstrate that a word may be understood by naming some of its parts.

The teacher makes a list of words on the board which name particular parts of a certain object.

e.g.	screen	volume and switch	cord
	antennae	program	off-on switch
	Commercial	plug	

Teacher asks the children to what she is referring. (T.V.) How did they know? When the response has been elicited from the class that all the parts named belong to a particular object, she can then point out that this is another way of describing certain words.

Several approaches can be used to develop this concept, the teacher can choose the preferred approach.

Suggested Pictures or Objects

flower	tree	boats	ships
school	hockey/football	game	truck
book	kitchen	house	an animal
record player	car	spaceship	car
fire engine	store	hospital	fish
bird	library	Post Office	road
flashlight	ski slope	mountains	river
bridge	zoo	picnic area	airplane

(Children may wish to choose their own. Teacher may wish to designate objects related to science or an enterprise topic.)

Suggested Approaches

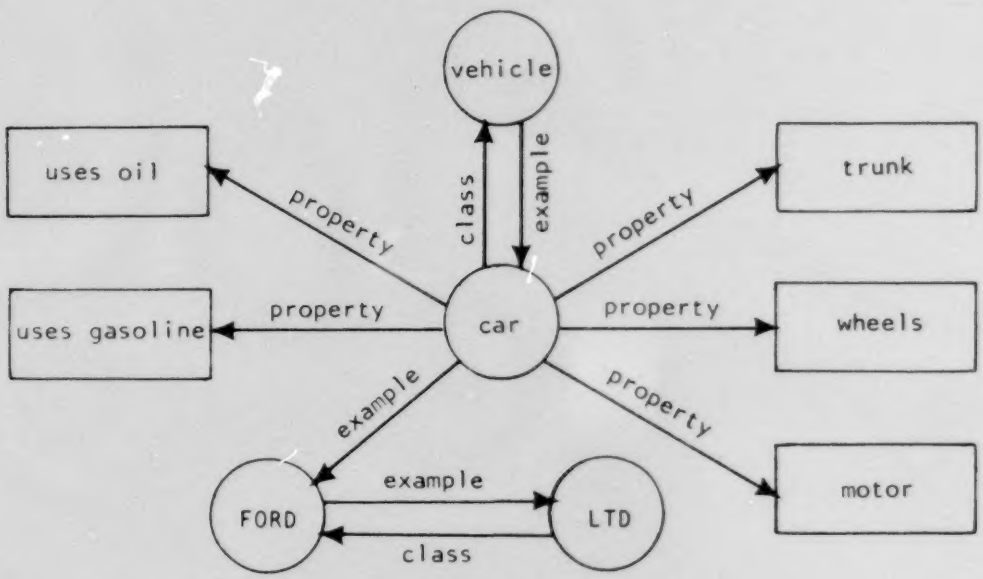
1. Teacher assigns 1 object or allows limited choice and children write down as many parts as they can. This procedure may be done orally or written, individually or as a class assignment.

2. Teacher asks the children tc bring, or draw a picture which they would like to label. Picture could be placed on a card, the children could write down the parts on separate smaller cards, hence more could be added. After the children have done the exercises, these cards could be placed in a large envelope and kept as spelling work cards or for dictionary skills (placing in alphabetical order) for slower children.

3. Class could be divided into groups to make their own charts, the groups could present their charts to the class. This presentation could be followed by oral discussion.

The relationships between words may similarly be shown through the use of semantic maps. These relationships are shown through an interlocking system of nodes and links that display graphically how words may be related. Pearson and Johnson (1978) state that "Nodes represent concepts, the links represent the relationships between concepts." One can see from the simple semantic map in Figure 8 that the relationship links are similar to the categories from Osgood and Evanechko.

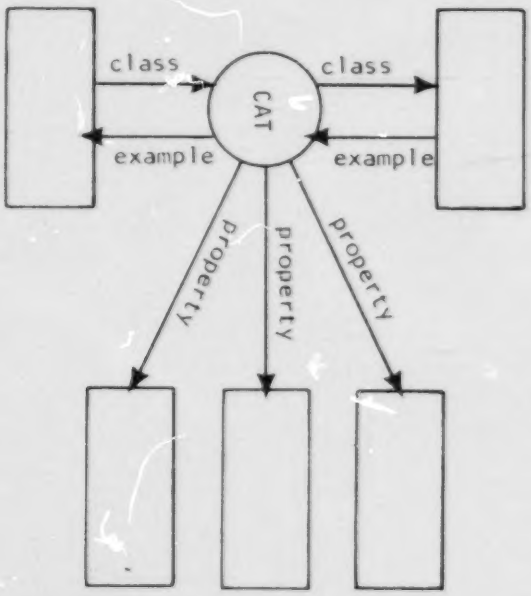
FIGURE 8



The use of the semantic map concept is limited only to the imagination of the teacher. Several techniques are suggested below:

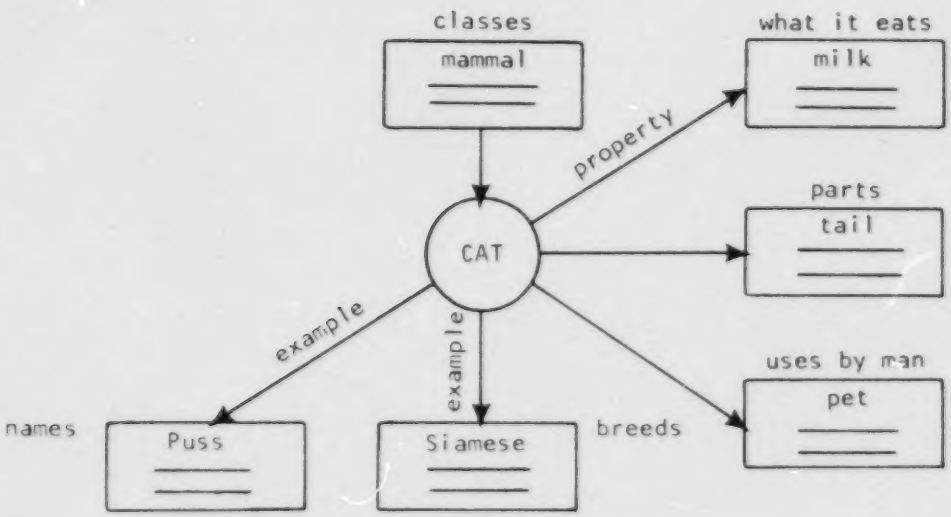
1. Have dittoed maps at first with only the key concept and explanation of the links given. Let the student fill in the related concepts.

FIGURE 9



2. Make nodes large enough to include multiple answers.

FIGURE 10



3. Have group work on the board with each individual taking a specific link such as property (attribute) and working with it.

4. Let students develop a comprehensive semantic map for a given word. (No map could ever be complete, however.)

Word feature analysis has been demonstrated by such authorities as Vine (1967); Dale and O'Rourke (1971); and Pearson and Johnson (1979). Pearson and Johnson have the most definitive description. Exercises using semantic feature analysis charts according to them show the children how to use semantic precision and lead them to the awareness that no two words mean exactly the same thing. Such charts ".... demonstrate clearly the uniqueness of each individual word...." The following steps are suggested by these authorities in developing word feature analysis diagrams.

1. Select a category.

2. List in a column, some words within that category.

3. List in a row some features shared by some of the words.

4. Put plusses or minuses beside each word beneath each word beneath each feature.

5. Add additional words.

6. Add additional features.

7. Complete the expanded matrix with plusses and minuses.

8. Discover and discuss the uniqueness of each word.

9. Pepeat the process with another category.

Figure 11 demonstrates this technique.

FIGURE 11

Features / Words	sweet	sour	bland	round	oblong	cylin-dricai
apple	+	+	-	+	-	-
orange	+	+	-	+	-	-
banana	-	-	+	-	-	+
pear	-	-	+	-	+	-
lemon	-	+	-	-	+	-

These charts may be used with words that are discrete, differing only in features, or with words that share the same feature in varying degrees. Figure 11 demonstrates the former. Figure 12 functions in the same way an intensity scale might, showing the intensity or gradient by the use of numbers.

FIGURE 12

Use the following scale to indicate the degree of that feature. Place the number in the square.

taste very sour (1) sour (2)
bland (3) semi-sweet (4)
sweet (5) very sweet (6)

texture hard (1) firm (2) soft (3)
very soft (4) mushy (5)

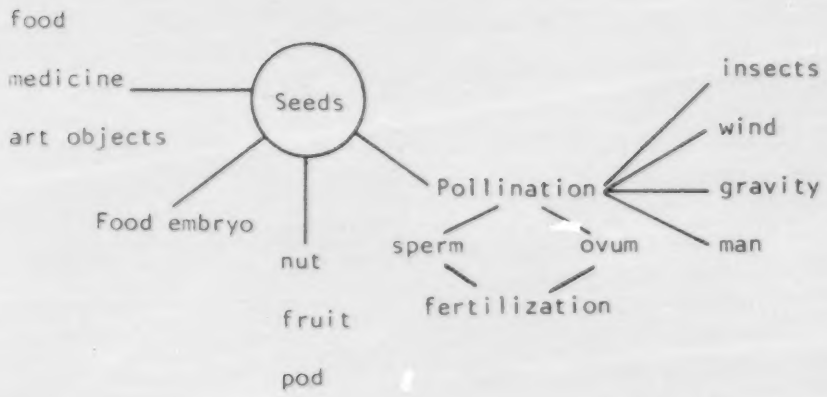
Features / words	taste	texture
lemon	1	2
orange	4	3
apple	5	2
banana	5	5
pear	3	2

Teaching the key concepts in subject areas such as social studies or science may also use word feature analysis.

Structured overviews as described by Estes, Mills and Baron (1969) are based on the same concept but are used differently. As Barron reports the content area vocabulary "may be depicted through a diagram or outline (iconic representation) so that the relationship between words and the relative importance of each word are highlighted. A verbal discussion (symbolic representation) of the diagram should take place in conjunction with its presentation."

The teacher would (1) select words that might be important for full understanding of a chapter; (2) manipulate them until they are in some relationship; (3) draw lines or show in some way the relationship between the words; (4) present the words to the class, and; (5) discuss their relationship to each other and the general theme of the lesson. The last step is often done through the use of an overhead projector or on dittos. The lines of relationship are the links of the semantic map but are explained through discussion rather than labelled on the visual. Figure 13 illustrates a structured overview.

FIGURE 13



3. Structural Analysis

The teaching of word parts is considered one of the most efficient methods of increasing children's reading vocabulary since commonality of word parts is seen in thousands of words met in everyday reading. Words appearing difficult at first glance become manageable as familiar parts emerge. Just one part of a word that is known may lead to enough understanding that the child is able to hypothesize the complete meaning or enough of the meaning that they can comprehend the sentence in which it appears. Compound words, words with prefixes or suffixes, inflections, or words with understandable parts lend themselves to this type analysis.

Teaching word parts, however, is not as easy as it may seem. The first problem that confronts the teacher is which word part to teach. There is little agreement among authorities as to which parts are the most important or those that are most likely to increase word power. Another difficulty is the variation of meaning when word parts are used in different words. Children come to distrust this system whenever they meet such inconsistency. Finally, the obstacle of how and when to teach word parts exists. Motivation for this type of study may be difficult since word parts, especially in long lists, tend to turn students off.

The first two of these problems, which parts to teach and varying meaning, have no easy solutions. Perhaps researchers in the future will analyze the vocabulary of the materials used by students and delineate the most useful and invariant word parts. Deighton (1959) has attempted this with his research that suggests certain invariant and frequently used word parts. These words part are shown below. Unfortunately, most of these seem to be useful or understandable to only junior high or secondary students. A similar list for primary and intermediate is essential.

Twenty-six Invariant combining word parts will unlock the meaning of 200 current English words.

anthro-	lith-	photo-
auto-	micro-	pneumo-
biblio-	mono-	poly-
bio-	neuro-	proto-
centro-	onmi-	pseudo-
cosmo-	pan-	tele-
heter-	penta-	uni-
homo-	phil-(philo)	
hydro-	phono-	

Ten Prefixes with single meanings and fairly invariant meanings. (Appear in about 650 words.)

apo-	intro-
circum-	mal-
equi-	mis-
extra-	non-
intra-	syn-

Deighton tells the teacher that he should explain that there are some words with these same beginnings that do not contain prefixes i.e., mallet.

Two useful prefixes with double meanings:

in- (not)	un- (not)
in- (into, within, in)	un- (the opposite of)

Twenty-four Specific and Invariant noun endings:

-ana	-fer	-meter
-archy	-fication	-metry
-art (-art)	-gram	-ology
-aster	-graph	-phone
-bility	-graphy	-phobia
-chrome	-ics	-ric
-cide	-itis	-scope
-ee	-latry	-scopy

Seventeen Specific and Invariant adjective suffixes and combining forms:

-able (-ible) (-ble)	-less	-acious
-est	-like	-ful
-ferous	-most	-ose
-fic	-scopic	-ous
-fold	-wards	(These 4 mean "full
-form	-wise	of" or "abounding in")
-geneous		

Other useful word parts grouped by common meaning:

Suffixes always indicating nouns

-acity
-hood
-ness
-tude
-ty

Noun suffixes meaning quality, state or condition of

-ance
-ation, -tion, -ion
-dom
-ence
-ery
-ism
-ment
-mony

Specific meaning noun suffixes

-osity (pertaining to)
-arium (a place where or a place for)

Noun endings indicating an agent either living or non-living

-eer
-ess
-grapher
-ler
-lst
-ster
-stress
-trix

Noun suffixes used to form diminutives

-cle
-cule
-kin
-let
-ock
-ule

All indicate small size but should be used with great caution.

No research exists that indicates the most efficient or most interesting way to teach word parts. Some suggested guidelines and techniques are discussed below:

Teach one at a time or in small groups, giving examples of each and showing how they work in words from different subject areas.

Use every opportunity for reinforcement of the understanding of the word part by pointing it out each time it occurs in various materials.

Give student a "mind-set" for exceptionality. There will always be exceptions to every generalization. If students know this, they're not as likely to abandon the technique.

Use a step-by-step process as suggested by Durkin (1976):

1. With derived and inflected words, prefixes and suffixes should be mentally separated from the root so that if the root is not familiar, its pronunciation can be worked out with the help of letter sound relationships.

2. Once a root is identified, the suffix immediately attached to it should be added. If there is a second suffix, that should be added next. The prefix is added last.

Pearson and Johnson (1978) suggest that this is a four-step sequence--"analyze, dismantle, identify, reassemble."

analyze - determine the parts
dismantle - as in Step 1
identify - identify the meaning of the root, then its parts
reassemble - put the parts back together as in Step 2 seeking meaning of the whole

4. Word Origin

The study of how words come into being, while not increasing vocabulary with the rapidity of study of word parts, does ensure that words will be remembered. Since words are being added daily to our language, this technique can range from a study of the ancient Greek and Roman legends to the current "in-words" of television, magazines, and newspapers. It remains only for the teacher to develop an interesting way to teach them. A list of the ways that words get into our language would include:

A. Invention - coined, made-up words--pyrex, blimp, kleenex.

B. Combination - words made from already existing parts--flatcar, streetcar, paperback.

C. Borrowing - words taken directly from other languages--kindergarten, nucleus, garage, hacienda.

D. Application of proper nouns--sandwich, boycott, cereal.

E. Abbreviations and acrostics--radar, scuba, NASA, UNECSO.

F. Shortened or "clipped words"--phone, lab.

G. Figurative language--horseplay, bugged, skyscraper.

H. Euphemisms--slumber room (funeral home), mortician (undertaken)

I. Converting one part of speech to another brief (adjective) to brief (verb), elbow (noun) to elbow (verb).

J. Blended words smog (smoke-fog) flare (flame-glare)

K. Diachronic Linguistics (changes in words over time). This would include amelioration, pejoration, generalization and specialization. Amelioration is the elevation of words to a higher level. Thus enthusiastic once meant fanatic. Pejoration is the degrading of a word. At one time a villain was nothing more than a farm servant. Generalization is exemplified by the word ship which at one time meant sent by ship. Today things are shipped by truck, plane or ship. An example of specialization is seen in the word meat. At one time it meant any type of food. Today it means a specific type of food.

L. Geographic linguistics lift (elevator) or the use of pop, soda, soft drink, cold drink, coke in different sections of the United States.

The most important principle to remember in using studying word origins is that students catch the interest of the teacher. A teacher who makes a great display of his love for words finds that his students are soon intrigued with words and will supply him with words for teaching in depth almost daily. Some ideas for studying word origin follow:

A. Have students keep notebooks of new words they hear on television, radio, or read in the newspapers. Figurative language especially finds its way to these sources and writers in all areas generate new words as a part of their creativity.

B. Have students create new words for discussion either by combining old words, conversion, blending, or coining completely original words.

C. Read Greek and Roman myths that gave words to our language.

D. In content areas, whenever a word appears that has an interesting background, see that the students are told about it.

E. Always have books with word histories available.

F. Show on a map how different words are used for the same idea in different parts of the country (coke, pop, soda, soft drink, soda pop) or in different countries (lift-elevator).

5. Vocabulary Reinforcement Exercises in the Content Area

Vine (1967), Herber (1978) and Smith (1978) all suggest that once words are introduced and explained in subject areas further activities are essential to develop retention. Vine (1967) calls such exercises vocabulary reinforcement exercises. These consist of a series of exercises at literal and interpretive levels of understanding that are designed to teach the words thoroughly. The same group of words studied before reading using a structural overview may be used also in these exercises. While taking the form of tests, they are used for teaching, not testing, student's knowledge of words. Such exercises can take the form of:

A. matching questions
B. multiple-choice questions
C. categorizing activities
D. defining activities
E. word recall or cloze
F. word puzzles (single-line)
G. crossword puzzles
H. crytograms (scrambled words) anagrams, acrostics
I. word hunts (words are hidden among other words and letters)
J. analogies
K. word analysis (similar to word feature analysis)
L. central word puzzles
M. configuration exercises

The types of exercises listed above serve in various ways. Cryptograms, word hunts, and configuration exercises teach instant recognition and spelling. Matching, multiple choice, crossword puzzles, defining, central word puzzles, and word puzzles serve to develop recall or literal understanding of the word. Categorizing, analysis, and analogies, on the other hand, leads to understanding of the relationships that exist among the words.

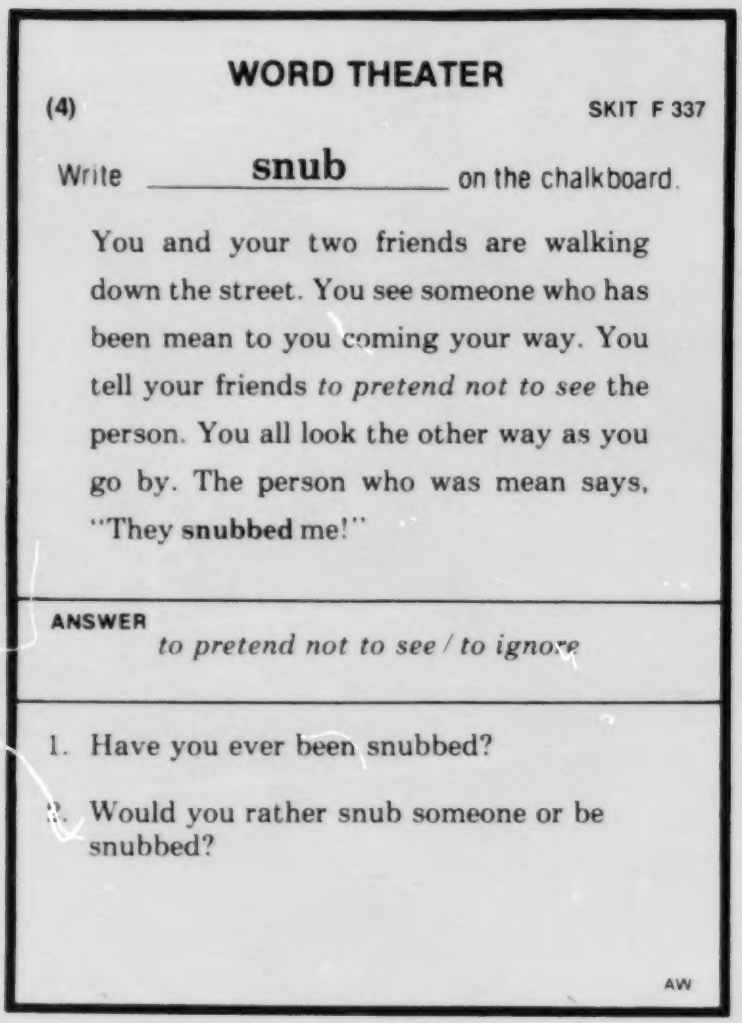
6. Word Play

While many of the exercises that have been discussed should be fun to do, the remaining section of this paper is clearly enrichment type activities that should be approached with enjoyment in mind. Much learning will occur in the process. These activities include dramatization, art, humorous anecdotes, games creative writing, detective work and linguistic search.

Dramatizing selected words includes charades, skits, and the telling of jokes, puns and riddles. Charades are useful more for explaining the usage and spelling of words, the action the word describes, the object the word describes, etc. Skits are also useful for showing the meaning of specific words. One of the best commercial sources of skits is Richard Boning's (1978) Word Theatre (Figure 14). In this program

a series of single concept cards containing the directions for a skit are presented to students and they present this to the class. The word and a synonym are used in the play and the action of the players explain the correct use of the word. After the skit the actors ask the class questions about the word that probe understanding. The materials are somewhat expensive but contain enough words for one or more years at the intermediate grade levels.

FIGURE 14



WORD THEATER

(4) SKIT F 337

Write **snub** on the chalkboard.

You and your two friends are walking down the street. You see someone who has been mean to you coming your way. You tell your friends *to pretend not to see* the person. You all look the other way as you go by. The person who was mean says, "They **snubbed** me!"

ANSWER
to pretend not to see / to ignore

1. Have you ever been snubbed?
2. Would you rather snub someone or be snubbed?

AW

Jokes, puns, and riddles often rely on sound shifts or meaning shifts of words for their humor. How a joke can teach word meaning is illustrated by the following joke told by John Kenneth Galbraith:

> A reporter asks a housewife, "What do you think is the most serious problem facing our country--ignorance or apathy?" "I don't know, and I don't care!" retorts the woman.

How else could the word escargot be taught than introducing it through the following pun?

> There was this Snail, see, went into a VW showroom. Slid up to a Salesman and said, I want to buy a Scirocco, or Scirroco, but that's what I want. And I want you to remove the VW emblem on the front and replace it with a big letter S. And I want you to paint an S on each door and on the back also. Fine, said the salesman, when he saw all the money that Snail was carrying. Fine. We'll do it. Only, why do you want the letter S painted all over your new car?
>
> Well, replied the Snail. I want to drive that car Real Fast. And whenever people see me speeding along, they'll holler Look At That S Car Go!

Or a new connotation for the word vegetable as in the following:

> Two Carrots were out walking. Taking the air. Enjoying the Fall Weather. But traffic was heavy on the streets, and as one carrot stepped off the curb, it got hit by a car. The carrot was really creamed (Get it?) But the other carrot called an ambulance and rode with its friend to the hospital. Emergency Room. Then surgery. After a long, long time, the surgeon came out and said to the friend, Well I have both Good News and Bad News. First the good News: Your friend will Live. The Bad News--your friend, thought living, will never be anything but a vegetable!

Riddles, by focusing on multiple meanings, likewise add a humorous dimension to learning specific terms. Example: "How is an inclined plane like a lazy dog?" "It's a slope up!"

Collecting or creating specific types of word usage of a humorous vein can also be rewarding especially for the bright or gifted children. These are anecdotes or twisted words named after a person who uses them most frequently. Shipley (1977) presents a very complete list of these.

Tom Swifties----"Get to the back of the boat!" he said sternly.
Spoonerisms-----It's kisstomary to cuss the bride.
Wellerisms------"I've been struck by the beauty of this place!" said the fresh young man when the pretty girl slapped him.
Goldwynisms-----"Anyone who goes for psychoanalysis ought to have his head examined."
Malapropisms----Her mother asked her to go to bed and she reclined to do so.

Some other examples of word play would include the tongue-twisters of Norm Crosby of the Budweiser commercials or Robin Williams word play in Mork and Mindy.

For the more astute the search for homonymbles and malaphors would be appropriate. In a homonymble a person is given a word and is expected to use its parts in a sentence in another way: (All of these are from Shipley's book)

translator: The medium said I will go into a trance later.
satisfaction: The leader of the dissidents sat his faction on the left.
withstanding: The bookeeper wore out the seat of his trousers not with standing.

A malaphor is mixing up a well known metaphor. "He threw a cold shoulder on that idea."

Manipulation of the letters within a word is often intriguing and stimulating for the real "word-nuts" that every teacher finds periodically. Some of these as suggested by Shipley are reversible words, irreversible binomials, kangeroo words, hospitable words, charitable words, amenable words, turnabout words, palindromes and anagrams. These are shown below:

Reversible words (Spelled backwards they make another word) diaper, gnat, rail, golf

Irreversible binomials (Paired together they make sense but when reversed sound strange.) town and gown, ham and eggs, men and women

Kangeroo words (words that contain a word within them that is a synonym for that word.) catacomb (tomb), respite (rest), evacuate (vacate)

Hospitable words (These are words that can accept a letter any place and make a new word.) rap: trap, reap, rasp, rapt

Charitable words (These are words that give up a letter and still form a valid word.) seat - sea; boat - boa

Amenable words (These are words that can exchange any letter for another and make a new word.) load: road, lead, lord, loan

Turnabout words (These are words that can put their first letter last and make a word.) heart-earth, each-ache, emit-mite

Palindromes (A palindrome is a word, phrase, verse, or sentence that reads the same backward or forward.) pap, pop,
Able was I ere I saw Elba. Madam, I'm Adam.

Anagrams (The familiar letters of one word may be arranged to form another word or words.) astronomers: no more stars or moon starers

Other word searchers for the bright and gifted should include argot, slang, cant, jargon, colloquialisms and hypostatization. The last refers to words for things that do not really exist i.e., vampires, elves, werewolves, fairies.

7. Word Cues or Self-Describers

A welcome relief from the more rigorous exercises is the creation of word cues or self-describers by students. These are drawings of the word done in such a way that their meaning is revealed through interpretation of visual clues. Some student developed examples are seen in Figure 15.

FIGURE 15

8. Learning Station and Learning Centers

Using a regular file folder a teacher, or even junior high students, can make a single concept learning station. Each folder teaches only one word using many of the exercises mentioned in this paper. These activities are best printed on or glued to the folder. An answer sheet is included for teacher-pupil evaluation. Included in each packet are the following:

1. A definition including different meanings and pronunciation key.
2. A word tree showing the root and other words that are made from the same root.
3. A cartoon, riddle, or pun using the word.
4. A center-word puzzle.
5. An intensity scale.
6. Vocabulary reinforcement exercise.
7. The word used in several sentences where context explains its meaning.

The selection of the words for these mini-stations will be determined by the needs of the students and the objectives of the teacher. It is advisable to have a series of words around a theme such as personality traits.

Figurative language, although mentioned previously, deserves more extensive treatment as an area of vocabulary instruction. It is in this area of language that change most often occurs--the most picturesque and expressive words springing from a culture's efforts to create new words or to use common words in new ways. In written material, where the author's background differs considerably from that of the reader, figurative language presents a unique comprehension difficulty. In such situations the writer is throwing a curve at the reader who is suddenly confronted with a combination of familiar words used in a most unusual way. Reading usually involves a great deal of prediction from the reader. In the case of figurative language he finds words used together in such a way that they do not follow what he has predicted especially if he reads such phrases literally. Another problem is presented by the generation gap between the writer and the reader. Similes and metaphors of the author's time are no longer viable to the reader. The simile "as slow as molasses in January" is meaningless to most children today. The plethora of figures of speech in basal readers even as low as the second and third grade level necessitates showing students how they are developed and how they get their hidden meaning.

A comprehensive list of figurative language that covers all possible types would include the following list although the specific types taught would be determined by the level of sophistication of the class. All of these have been listed by some authority as figurative language although some linguists might argue that some are poetic devices rather than figure of speech.

(a) Simile: compares two objects joining them with as, like or than

Example: "like a pine tree lining a winding road"

(b) Metaphor: draws a comparison between two things that are usually not associated with each other. A metaphor does not use as, than or like.

Example: He was a bear this morning.

(c) Personification: A lifeless thing or quality is spoken as if it were alive.

Example: The trees whispered in the breeze.

(d) Hyperbole: A deliberate and extravagant exaggeration used for effect and not meant to be taken literally.

Example: We've checked miles of figures, thousands of times, but couldn't find the mistake.

(e) Apostrophe: A figure of speech in which the writer addresses an absent person as if he were present or a thing or idea as if it could understand.

Example: "Oh, death where is thy sting? Oh, grave where is thy victory?"

(f) Euphemism: A mild, indirect word or phrase used instead of one that is more harsh or direct or that may have unpleasant connotations for some people.

Example: perspire for sweat
terminate his services for fire him

(g) Antieuphemism: The opposite of euphemism--used by an author for "shock value."

Example: The criminal croaked.
(most scatalogical words)

(h) Irony: Implying something different even opposite from what is actually said: a disguised satire; ridicules the object that it pretends to praise.

Example: You're a fine friend.

(i) Metonymy: The name of something closely associated with a thing is substituted for its name.

Example: The pen is mightier than the sword.

(j) Synechdoche: The writer names a part when he means the whole or the whole when he means only a part.

Example: He had 20 herd of cattle. Fifty sails were seen on the horizon.

(k) Allusion: The use of a word or words that will recall some interesting fact, custom, place, writing, or anything.

Example: He has the patience of Job.
He met his waterloo.

(l) Litotes: A form of understatement in which the writer or speaker says in negative form the opposite of what he means.

Example: She's not bad looking.
He is a musician of no little ability.

(m) Oxymoron: Contradictory terms are brought sharply together for emphasis.

Example: bitter sweet
sweet sorrow
cruel kindness

(n) Others: alliteration, onomatopoeia, epigrams, allegory, and antithesis.

Teaching figurative language should be made as interesting as possible allowing students to find these examples in up-to-date material and creating them for their own use.

One such source is the lyrics of popular songs. Since these are constantly on the air students will find it interesting to discover how songwriters use words. It is only a short step, then, to identifying such devices in

poetry and literature. Song sheets may be dittoed for each member of the class or cassettes may be played in class showing how the words are used.

Personification may be taught by having children take any mechanical device and pretend it has human characteristics. This could lead to a creative writing project where they list the complaints of a particular machine are given. A washing machine might complain that it gets a cold from too much dampness.

Artistic exercises showing two interpretations of surface structure idioms like "the Indian bit the dust" would show students the dangers of literal interpretation of such statements.

Pearson and Johnson (1978) suggest exercises "emphasizing the comparative nature of figurative language." They would have the students by having them select two items that have something in common such as a tall boy and a tree. Then the student would make the comparison (simile) Henry is tall. A tree is tall. Henry is a tall as a tree. Such exercises not only increase comprehension but help the students in creative writing.

Other materials for vocabulary study

1. Menus

   Menus are especially appropriate for studying the use of words for propaganda. Jane Brown, a fourth grade teacher at Stockwell School in Evansville, Indiana, developed a unit on words used to "sell" food from a menu. Out-dated menus from The Farmer's Daughter, a local restaurant, were surveyed for terms that appealed to the senses (taste, smell, sight, texture, etc.); to the pocketbook; or to the person's background. Listed below are some of the categories and some of the seventy adjectives found by the students.

Sight	Taste	Odor	Texture	Size of Portion
goldenbrown	mouth-watering	tantalizing	crisp	generous
snowywhite	spicy	piquant	tender	bountiful
	juicy		chunky	heaping
	succulent			large

Freshness of Preparation	Nostalgia
snowy fresh	down home cooking
spring fresh	country fresh

2. Magazines, television commercials, newspapers

Similar activities may be taken from magazine ads, or from television commercials. Even second-graders can recognize some of the "selling words" and such knowledge of usage is essential for critical comprehension.

In conclusion it is apparent that teachers must be willing to develop their own materials if vocabulary construction is going to be at levels that go deep into the psycholinguistic understanding of words. The guidelines suggested in this sourcebook give the framework for such activities and the sources in the bibliography supply more specific suggestions. This type of vocabulary instruction should be enjoyable both for the student and teacher. Great care should be taken in the selection of words to be taught, in the types of activities used to study these words, and in the methods and attitude of the teacher. The rewards of this type program are worth the effort.

VOCABULARY DEVELOPMENT FOR 'ATYPICAL' LEARNERS IN THE SCHOOL SETTING

by

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As we look through the corridor of time, one fact becomes quite discernible. The present must be analyzed in the light of past knowledge in order to accurately chart the future. This observation is especially pertinent in the area of vocabulary building for atypical learnings if they are to become literate adults.

Words and meanings comprise much of the stuff of which life is made. For higher levels of civilization, words are imperative. Consequently, it is important that children feel a sense of wonder and pleasure when approaching language acquisition experiences.

Although the instruments of communication have increased in number and power, the ability to communicate seems to have steadily declined. Despite the acceleration of verbal skills at early stages, a perplexing dilemna exists in the area of word usage. Often common adjectives are overworked while precise meanings are left to the imagination of the listener.

In order to consider the many facets of vocabulary building for the atypical learners in the school setting, the academic task will be divided into three parts for identification. The first stage is reading vocabulary acquisition. When one begins to look for a definition for this stage, it appears to be a simple task. The key is simply to attach phonemes and graphemes to spoken words which already have personal meaning.

If you were to ask someone at random, "What do words mean?", that person would very likely retort "They mean what they mean." However, this is not necessarily true. Words mean, rather, what the speaker and hearer of the moment expect them to mean. This is something quite different from the usual expectation of word meaning. The code and language heard on the C.B. radios is a timely example. Most lexicographers agree with the observation that words are for children, while precise meanings are for adults.

Word meaning is not absolutely and rigidly ruled by what is listed in the dictionary. Conversly, the dictionary is not a law that rules words and imprisons them with definitions. A study of dictionary editions covering the past one hundred years poignantly proves this observation. Most dictionaries do not convey meanings which have commonly been assigned to a word. This, by the way, is most pertinent

for beginning learners, because meanings are decided from generation to generation through the consent of common usage as to what words "mean." In addition, we individually assign meanings and shades of meanings of our own to the common words of our vocabulary. There is a measure of sense in Humpty Dumpty's bland assertion that "When I use a word it means just what I choose it to mean."

The extension of language concepts should be approached within the framework of the total language process. Assimilation of ideas, that is understanding, comes first; then speaking and listening follow. The reading, writing and emerging vocabularies appear later. There are only vague delineations between these concepts, as they are not equivalent or synonymous at any one precise moment in time. In fact, a marasmus effect may occur as children move through the various stages of academia.

The atypical learner absorbs the listening and speaking vocabularies, for the most part, through the auditory route. Television is a major contributor, as it reinforces the observation that a word not only has meaning, it has feeling, tone and intonation.

For young children, introducing word development through dramatization is usually quite successful. The use of drama seems to clarify vague meanings of abstract is especially important in this area. Dramatization releases a spontaneity and will enhance vocabulary development through more realistic experiences.

Another practical approach, with many variations, is the word scavenger hunt. Children can gather ideas in teams; then search for meanings, compare their findings and arrive at composite understandings. The search may include making drawings, utilizing pictures, or constructing models for illustrative purposes. This approach uses different modalities for learning; thus the strategy is appropriate for atypical learners.

In order to counter-balance the brusque effect of television, the alternative is to read, read; then read some more to children. There are many books available which make young children aware of language play that incorporates tone and feeling into word meaning. When reading orally to children, be certain to read at various speeds. For some books, slowness is the key and for others, a fast clip is demanded. One child expressed the idea in this way, "Read slower, teacher, I can't listen that fast."

Vocabulary, more than any other factor, predicts how far and in what direction a child can go in school and in life. An adequate vocabulary is gained through many experiences, both real and vicarious. This verbal base may be exteneded in myriad ways and dimensions. Some considerations are: (1) Children must have the opportunity to learn the language in a whole way and must have the opportunity to use it. (2) Teachers must encourage parents to become involved in the total process of vocabulary extension.

Children need special guidance in the second stage of vocabulary development. That is, they need real and vicarious experiences in quantity and quality to deepen and enrich the meaning values of words which have been just partially learned or acquired. The more varied the experiences,

the richer will be the meaning value of the words. Word accumulation may be analogous to mining precious gems. You see a glimmer; then dig it out to claim it as your own. Without the digging experience, it may not really be yours to claim.

At this point, one should add a new dimension to the definition of vocabulary development. Perhaps for the older child, it is an ongoing process of identifying, appreciating and using word meanings and backgrounds with the accompanying concepts in a progression that continually adds depth and breath of understanding to oral and printed messages.

The word expansion idea is a helpful technique. A combination of syntactic/semantic elements can now be used to help broaden the reading vocabulary. Children overlearn the basic vocabulary by expanding base or root words with various affixes. In this way, the structure of written language can be experienced in a variety of ways.

Setting personal goals in vocabulary growth and development is an important element in the process. Setting the goal; then tenaciously clinging to it will aid the building process. One adequate goal might be to learn, that is to know, the meanings of words which are important to the basic reading level at any given developmental level. However, the most important aspect is to maintain an assiduous program with follow through activities for reinforcement.

Most word analysts concur that one cannot increase word power in a short time. One must continue to reiterate the notion that a person's accumulated vocabulary reflects all interests, life experiences and everything that has happened during one's lifetime. This fact is even more imperative to consider when dealing with the atypical learner. Vocabulary development is a gradual process and cannot accelerate and expand without lucid, concise experiences with the new words to be acquired.

At Camelot, Young Arthur loved to go into the woods to experience Merlin and his wonderful land of magic. Merlin called Arthur "Wart" and they entered a new, exciting and sensual phase of vocabulary experience and development. Wart became a bird, a turtle or whatever he wanted to be at that moment. For Wart, Merlin's world was an idea - a place to learn. The climate, the atmosphere, the environment was conducive to intrinsic language development. The spirit, or thought or hunch dictated the experience. So, teachers can share a Camelot with their students. Set up a round table of learning in the classroom.

Phase three of vocabulary develoment is by far the most intricate and complex. As young people move into this phase, the language teacher must, in addition to directing vocabulary growth, make the student cognizant of the multiple meaning of words. This skill is crucial at the upper elementary, middle school, junior and senior high school levels.

One effective way of studying words is to introduce Latin and Greek roots. At earlier levels, one of the "thrill" words was antidestablishmentarianism. A study of derivatives would aid in deciphering the meaning of such polysyllabic words at advanced levels. By analyzing word elements, a new dimension in word study can be created.

Music may be utilized as a "common denominator" for extending word meanings. Comprehension of a variety of concepts can be approached through song writing and interpretation. Language is a vital component because melodies must be structured to complement the meaning of words and the accents of the spoken word. It can be an inspirational highly motivating approach to word study during this phase of development.

Convincing evidence is being gathered which indicates our young people may know how to read, but they do not exercise this skill to any great degree. Many students, therefore, lack an extensive reading background. Consequently, the problems encountered in phase three mandates that teachers take a synergistic approach to word study. Conditions which foster wide reading must be developed and maintained.

It is clear that a need exists for the construction of practical guides for teachers to use when working with vocabulary development techniques for atypical learners. There is a need for creative and imaginative studies in this area of curriculum development. We must be made aware of the conditions which foster receptive language skills. To deny any child the opportunity to expand their horizon is, in itself, a pernicious form of regression and oppression. We can and must aid young people in the process of increasing their word power with signal ophelimity.

The extensive development of vocabularies for future generations must include a recognition of time honored values of the past. Consideration must be given to values in transition in order to continually absorb and reflect the new ideas. As the teacher attempts to interpret and relate the changing world in terms of classroom conditions and needs, a variety of techniques must be utilized. Consequently, flexibility and change is certainly a necessary passport to the real world of vocabulary extension in the future. Extending vocabularies of children will offer a unique, kaleidoscopic view of their world. In addition, it can stimulate thought and expression so the "real" world scene can be experienced with a more noteworthy contribution being made by each participant.

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A KNOCK-OUT OF AN IDEA TO IMPROVE VOCABULARY

by

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"LOQUACIOUS ALI CONFIDENT HE WILL DEFEAT LEON SPINKS," read the headlines of the sports page on a September day in 1978. The article had been neatly clipped from the morning paper and was in the proud possession of one of the second graders in the multi-grade classroom.

The young man grinned broadly as he volunteered to contribute to the daily current events session; standing in front of the class he proudly displayed the picture and article about his hero. Having no idea of how to pronounce loquacious, let alone the meaning of the word, he unabashedly omitted it and read, "Ali confident he will defeat Leon Spinks."

The teacher instinct within me gave a loud clang and realizing I had a "hot topic" as well as an opportune moment, I bestowed lavish praise upon my student for his contribution and proceeded to print the word, loquacious, on the blackboard.

Whatever the word, we all agreed that not knowing what it was had not interferred with the meaning of the headlines. One of the sixth graders quickly found the word in the dictionary, and laughing to himself as he silently read the meaning of the word, he gave the other fifty-four members of the class the following clues:

"It's a word which describes Ali. It tells what he likes to do best."

"Fight," responded someone.

"No," answered our dictionary authority. "It's something else that he likes to do in front of a crowd."

"Talk!" answered a voice from somewhere within our ranks.

"Right-fond of talking!" replied our sixth grader as he wrote his simplified pronounciation, lō quā'shus, on the board.

Someone once said, "The pen is mightier...." In this case, the impetus of that sports writer's adjective launched us into a most rewarding and interesting learning experience. For it became a morning ritual to identify, from our current events, at least one colorful word we would all like to to learn. The words did not necessarily come from the media-quite often they developed from events or experiences within the class. Someone brought in a garter snake and we added herpetology, herpetologist, non-poisonous, venom, venomous, and fangs, From our cooking center came a multitude of words such as aromatic, palatable, and

nutritious. After a field trip to the local zoo we added nocturnal, herbiverous, carniverous, and predator.

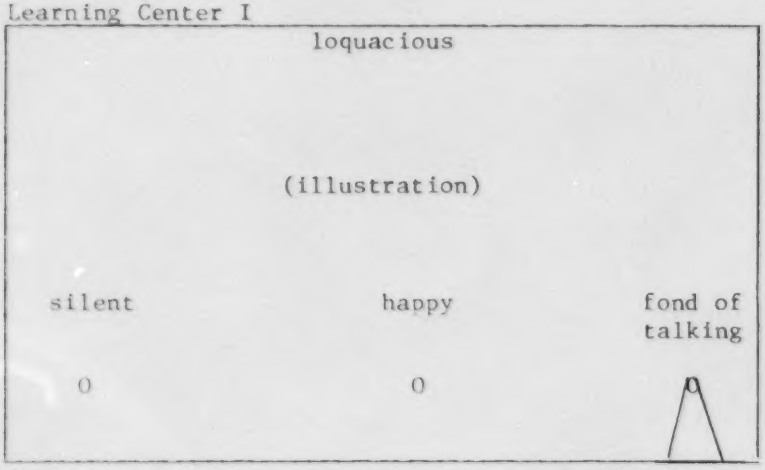
A sixth-grader agreed to act as our secretary. She made a record of each new word on a 3 x 5 index card.

Every Friday morning we played group games with randomly selected words from our list. The entire class, Grades II through VI, would divide into two teams for a simple game such as Tic-Tac-To. In order to score an X or O for the team, however, a member of that team had to recognize and pronounce the word when it's definition was given. (Other variations such as synonyms, antonyms, using the word in a sentence, etc. were used.)

We then set about to construct a learning center which would provide further use of our words. We decided this learning center would be made into a fun place where one could go and practice on our "silver dollar words." There would be no activities involving pencils, every task would be self-correcting, and we would use manipulative devices.

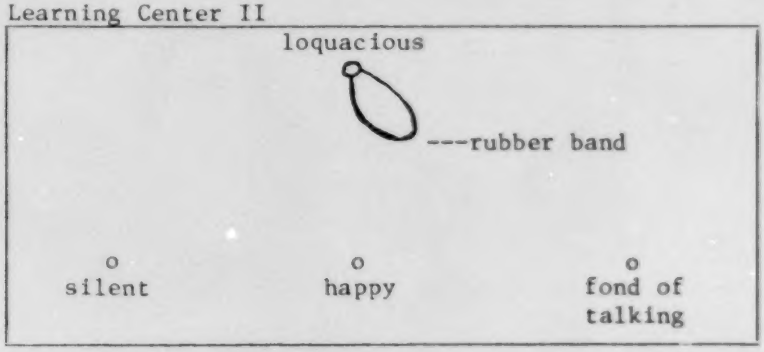
Learning Center I was a paired association task. I printed a word at the top of a 8" x 11½" piece of oaktag. A student made a large illustration under the word. Three responses were printed at the bottom of the card and a hole was punched under each response. The hole under the correct response was cut in such a way that the card could be removed from the box when a round sucker stick was poked into the correct hole. The cards were placed in a box which had the front portion cut away so that the three responses were visible on the cards but not the holes beneath them. Three holes had been punched in the box to correspond with the three holes on the card. To make the cards more durable, they were covered with transparent contact paper.

Learning Center I



Learning Center II was also a paired association task, but there were no illustrations. I cut 5" x 8" cards from heavy cardboard and printed a word at the top and three responses at the bottom. A paper fastener was fastened under the vocabulary word and under each response. A rubber band was attached to the paper fastener under the vocabulary word; it could be pulled down and hooked onto one of the paper fasteners above the three responses. So that the student could self-correct, I had a rubber band correctly attached on the back of the card.

Learning Center II



A cloze procedure task was employed for Learning Center III. Using context the same, or similar, to the one from which we first encountered our word, I wrote a sentence deleting our vocabulary word. Ten such sentences were placed on a card. The omitted words were written on tongue depressors which were numbered on the back in such a manner that they would read from 1 to 10 when turned over.

Learning Center IV was also a cloze procedure task. I divided 12" pizza round into 10 sections, wrote sentences in which our words would be in new context, deleting the vocabulary word but writing it on a clothespin which could be attached to the pizza round I color-coded the back of the pizza round with the back of the clothespins so that the students could self-check.

The students were so proud of themselves and their ability to use impressive words. We heard many favorable responses from parents. Many of them remarked that it became the topic at the dinner table to discuss the "word-for-the-day." The principal was impressed when she overheard the students using our newly acquired words in conversation.

Last but not least, that reward of all rewards for the elementary teacher--a delighted middle school student the next fall, waving in her hand her computer print-out of her test results, "Look how far my stars go for vocabulary!"

EVALUATING VOCABULARY INSTRUCTION IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

by

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What is the best way to teach vocabulary? Does someone know? Is the research conclusive? Can secondary teachers agree on the components of a good vocabulary lesson?

Rate each of the following instructional practices using the scale provided. Determine the use and value of each practice in your assessment.

___ 1. Copy the words in the back of the chapter. Look them up in a dictionary. Write out the definition.

___ 2. Underline the words in the chapter (in pencil) that you do not know. Look them up in the dictionary and keep a file for yourself.

___ 3. Have students copy words from the teacher's lecture and writing on the board. Have them look up the words in the glossary. Write the definitions in a notebook and write a sentence using the word correctly.

___ 4. Write the words on 3 x 5 cards. Have students take turns looking words up in the dictionary and reporting to class.

___ 5. The teacher points out potentially difficult words before the students read. The words are discussed and used in class. Students copy the difficult words in meaningful sentences. A five minute spelling bee and definition bee is held before students read the material.

___ 6. Students copy words that the teacher has decided are the difficult words. The slower students look up the words in the dictionary, while the more advanced readers attempt to get meaning from the context of the chapter. Written assignments are given based on the words.

___ 7. The teacher provides a list of hard words with their definitions after students have read a chapter or passage. Students are told to learn the words. Students are grouped according to learning style to facilitate vocabulary growth. Words appear on a quiz once per week.

___ 8. Difficult words are incidentally used by the teacher in lecture and discussion. Students are instructed to tell the teacher if there are any words that they do not understand. Words identified as difficult are then taught.

___ 9. The teacher provides a weekly list of terms and words that students are responsible for in their reading. Students use the dictionary and glossary to define words. Weekly quizzes, with a comulative review test, are given.

___ 10. Essential roots, prefixes and suffixes are routinely taught. New words are always taught in context. Written and oral performance in class and on tests is expected. Bonus vocabulary points are given to those who do especially well. Outside reading in the content area is encouraged to increase vocabulary.

It would be a safe assumption to state that for every reader of this article a different set of ratings would be born. There may be some general agreement on a few of the items and some items may even be viewed as a good component of a vocabulary instruction program. We may find agreement in that none of the items should constitute an entire program, nor be overused to the point of boredom, nor used so extensively as to exclude others. All of these assertions may ring true, BUT WHY? What is it that makes us rate some instructional practices high and others low? It will be the focus of this article to begin an analysis of vocabulary instruction so that a simple rating scale of related vocabulary instructional practices may be developed.

Professional educators will not deny that vocabulary instruction is essential, even central, among all educational practices on the secondary school level. As one of the prime factors influencing the readability of a passage, vocabulary load is of vital import to reading comprehension. The first step, of course, in passage comprehension is word comprehension. A teacher's ability, then, to teach words is of vital import. With the instructional practice of vocabulary teaching viewed as central, the evaluation of behaviors (as those catalogued above) is mandated.

Vocabulary instruction can be evaluated from the dual perspective of teacher and learner. Formal and informal vocabulary measures of student mastery abound at all levels of instruction, since the learner is most often evaluated with traditional assessment tools. Student performance is traditionally measured by relative mastery of a list of vocabulary items. Raw score, grade levels, percentiles, stanines, quartiles and standard scores are all generated by student performance. Evaluation devices for the assessment of teacher behavior, however, are much less precise. Rarely is teacher behavior scrutinized with such care as to yield performance ratings with such precision. In reality, it is rare that a teacher's instructional practices in "vocabulary instruction" per se are ever examined with care. Since, however, such practices are of such focal concern, some measure of their worth is needed.

BACKGROUND: HOW IS VOCABULARY TAUGHT?

As illustrated in the sample methodologies above, there is no mystery concerning instructional practice in vocabulary learning. We all teach vocabulary differently. Let us, however, clarify a point. People only learn new words in one of five basic ways: through context, sound, structure, dictionary usage or personal inquiry.

Context. Context is the use of clues external to the word to arrive at meaning of the word. Clues from the reader himself, the flow of language or the setting of the word in a phrase or passage can give cues to word meaning. Context is traditionally advocated as the first approach that should be used in word identification. The use of context clues is fallible and not always practical; it is one of several approaches.

Sound. The sound of the word is often clue enough for meaning extraction. The sound itself may not have intrinsic morphological value, but just hearing the word will often cue the meaning.

Structure. The examination of the morphological units of the word is the study of structural analysis. The roots and affixes alone will often give sufficient meaning to the reader to facilitate comprehension.

Dictionary. The use of outside sources of word meanings (dictionaries, glossaries, specialized dictionaries, etc.) is a method of arriving at word meaning. Dictionaries have the drawback and advantage of being complete, sometimes too complete.

Inquire. When the context fails, the sound gives no meaning cue, the structure of the word is unfamiliar and a dictionary will not serve the immediate purpose, ASKING for the meaning of the word in question is the final method of word attack. It must be noted that use of any of these methods of learning new words in isolation will lead to a low success percentage. A word attack program must be balanced and geared to the material being read.

BACKGROUND: WHAT VOCABULARY DOMAINS ARE SERVED?

Learners have four distinct vocabularies that are in continuous states of flux: listening, speaking, reading and writing.

Listening. The quantity of words comprehended when heard by the learner. Usually recognized as the largest vocabulary.

Speaking. The quantity of words used correctly in the speech of the learner. The size of this vocabulary is a direct function of the sum of all verbal abilities of the learner.

Reading. The quantity of words that the learner can identify by reading. This is a measure of silent reading vocabulary.

Writing. The quantity of words that a learner can use with semantic and syntactic correctness. Spelling is a limiting factor to many learners writing vocabularies.

All learners possess all of these vocabularies in varying size, with varying degrees of usefulness and on varying levels of competence. The vocabularies are certainly similar in many components and are in interdependent on each other for growth and definition. They are, however, distinct and defineable entities.

If, then, we can define four basic methods of teaching vocabulary (CONTEXT, SOUND, STRUCTURE AND DICTIONARY) and know that our purpose is to install words in four vocabularies of students (LISTENING, SPEAKING, READING, WRITING) would it not make sense to evaluate vocabulary instruction on the basis of how well these methods and these vocabularies interact? The following matrix illustrates the point.

VOCABULARY METHODOLOGY X VOCABULARY TYPE MATRIX

METHODS OF TEACHING VOCABULARY	VOCABULARY TYPE: Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing
Context				
Sound				
Structure				
Dictionary				

The matrix suggests that each of the four methods can be used to "teach words into" each of the four vocabularies. This writer would suggest that the

more of these methodologies that are simultaneously used to "teach" words into as many learner vocabularies as possible the more valuable that particular vocabulary practice would be. The following illustrate the rating system.

Sample #1.

> Teacher provides a list of words by writing them on the board for students to copy. The assignment is to look the words up in the dictionary and write a defintion. There will be a quiz on Friday.

Upon examiniation of the practice it is obvious that the teacher is utilizing one methodology and one (or possibly two) of the four available vocabularies as targets. The teacher uses the dictionary and installs words in the writing and possibly the reading vocabularies of the students (both installations being tenuous at best). This sample scores a "2" on the matrix, since the methodologies and the vocabularies have interacted only at two points (see sample matrix #1)

	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing
Context				
Sound				
Structure				
Dictionary			X	X

SAMPLE MATRIX #1

Sample #2.

> Teacher provides a list of difficult words by listing them on the board and having students volunteer to read them. Each word is read outloud and repeated by various class members. The students are told to locate the words in pre-specified sentences in the reading and determine meaning from context. Dictionaries are encouraged for last ditch efforts only. The assignment is to write a meaningful sentence with the word.

The examination of this sample indicates that the teacher is possibly utilizing three methodologies (CONTEXT, SOUND DICTIONARY) and attempting to install the word into all four vocabularies. Careful evaluation realizes that the teacher is utilizing the SOUND methodology to install words into the LISTENING, SPEAKING AND READING vocabularies. The teacher is utilizing the CONTEXT methodology to install words into the reading and writing vocabulary (note the learners are not listening to nor speaking with the words in CONTEXT). The teacher is utilizing the DICTIONARY methodology to install words in students reading and/or writing vocabularies. Examination of the Sample #2 matrix shows that a score of 7 was achieved. Thus, the second method is superior to the first, as more points of interaction were plotted. (Notice that Sample two could have received a higher score and consequently been viewed as a more complete method of instruction if the teacher would have introduced the words by saying them in context and having the students do the same. This may have increased the score by two units.)

	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing
Context			X	X
Sound	X	X	X	
Structure				
Dictionary			X	X

SAMPLE MATRIX #2

The samples above, then, indicated that the more points of interaction on the matrix, the better the instructional practice appears. It is impossible to rate practices on the sheer quantity of interaction points (i.e. 16 units is a perfect score) since the practice that uses all methodologies and installs words in all vocabularies simultaneuously may be too confusing to students. It, however, would be fair to say that the higher the number of contact points on the matrix, the more effective the instructional practice appears to be. A practice that reates a 10 is clearly superior to a practice that rates a 3. A practice that rates a 14 is clearly better than a practice that rates a 4, but the rating of 14 does not imply that the practice is near perfection.

This method of instructional evaluation is useful as a self-assessment tool since teachers know their practices. It will be useful in planning vocabulary instruction if teachers attempt to have as many methodologies interact with many vocabularies as possible in a lesson. The matrix will also be a valuable assessment tool for the evaluation of the practices of teaching staffs by administrators.

The key, then, to vocabulary instruction is variety of approach, completeness of approach and knowledge of the target vocabularies intended to benefit from the instruction. The matrix presented above is a useful tool in assisting teachers' evaluation of instructional practice in vocabulary teaching.

CREATIVITY IN YOUNG CHILDREN: WHAT RESEARCH TELLS THE TEACHER

by

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Creativity, as an area of scientific study, was relatively unexplored until the last two decades. In recent years, an awareness of the need for creative thinking, coupled with the knowledge of the importance of the early years in the development of the child'd intellect (Bruner, 1960; Bloom, 1964; White, 1975) have produced considerable research pertinent to the early childhood educator.

In order to develop creative classroom atmospheres, recognize and nurture creative children, and plan creative lessons, an understanding of the current research must be examined.

Creative development has been described as a state process extending from infancy to adulthood (Brown, 1970; Gowan, 1971; Shapiro, 1975). Shapiro identified several stages of creative development in children: symbolizing, representation and intention, and finally the development of craft. A knowledge of these stages will be helpful as educators strive to encourage each child to develop to his fullest potential.

Malone and Moonan (1975), Guilford (1975), and Rekdal (1977) concur with Brown (1970) on the importance of making special curricular provisions for the creative child, cautioning that any modification of creative behavior toward the mean is a form of regression. If teachers are to provide an environment which encourages acceptable group behavior as well as individual creative behaviors, the challenge to identify these children is paramont.

It is difficult to conduct meaningful research in measurement in creativity because of the lack of agreement on major theoretical issues and the lack of empirical evidence supporting any single position. In a review of the research, Treffinger, Renzulli, and Feldhusen (1971) noted several of the problems associated with the measurement of creativity: the internal and external validity of most measures are weak, and the reliability is controversial. This corroborated the findings of Khatena (1971b).

Identification of creativity in preschool children is frought with uncertainties. Concern for the validity of creativity measures for preschool children was expressed by Busse, Blue, and Guthride (1972), Fu (1977), and Petrosko (1978). One area of agreement, emphasized by Crockenberg (1972), Shapiro (1975), Fu (1977) and Meeker (1978), is the need to look at the unique developmental aspects of young children if we hope to measure their creativity. Creativity measures have often applied conditions associated with adult creativity to the creativity of the young child.

Rotter, Langland, and Berger (1971) examined the validity of the Wallach and Kogan tasks for seven-year-old children. Their conclusions concurred with Getzels and Jackson (1962), Anastasi and Schaefer (1971), Crockenberg (1972), Hargreaves and Bolton (1972), and Ward (1975) that creativity and intelligence are separate traits. Crockenberg, however, failed to accept the premise that these tests measure creativity, but concluded that the tests may examine specific components of the creative process such as fluency and ideational productivity.

One of the components singled out by several researchers (Rotter, Langland, and Berger, 1971; Singer and Rummo, 1973; Singer and Whiton, 1971; and Hargreaves and Bolton, 1972) is fluency. Children engaged in activities designed to elicit numerous ideas (such as asking children to think of all of the possible uses for a bottle) need to be observed carefully for indications of creativity.

Petrosko (1978) evaluated over eight hundred test of creativity using thirty-six criteria and found that tests aimed at older elementary students were superior to tests for younger children. This concurs with the findings of Rimm and Davis (1976) that the validity of The Group Inventory for Finding Creative Talent, a creativity test for elementary school children, increased with grade level.

Instruments have been specifically designed for preschool children by Starkweather (1971) and Malone and Moonan (1975). Very little data have been presented in support of the validity of these creativity tests. Busse, Blum, and Gutride (1972) and Ward (1969) found no significant differences across different testing conditions. Despite the uncertainties surrounding the assessment of young children, preschool educators must make judicious use of the instruments currently available.

The theoretical work of Smith (1973) indicated that creativity is a universal trait found in all children. It would follow then, that all children have the potential to benefit from teaching practices designed to encourage creativity.

Creativity as it related to "open" and "traditional" classrooms has been the topic of debate. Proponents of the open classroom have made claims of producing students with high levels of creative behavior. However, conclusive research was not found to support the superior performance of either organizational pattern. Ramey and Piper (1974) found that figural creativity was superior in open classrooms and verbal creativity was superior in traditional classrooms. Similarly, Hyman (1978) reported that fluency was superior in open classrooms, but levels of flexibility varied by grade levels in open and traditional classrooms. Additional research reported by Richmond, Phillips and Blanton (1972) indicated that highly structured first grade classrooms, emphasizing cognitive development, did

not produce creativity levels which differed significantly from the creativity levels in a control group attending a regular classroom.

There is research (Shivley, Feldhussen and Treffinger, 1972; and Huber, Treffinger, Tracy, and Rand, 1979) indicating that creativity training programs have been successful in the elementary school.

Educators cannot wait until they know exactly how children benefit from creativity training to incorporate what is known into teaching practice. One beginning step is to build the preschool curriculum around Bloom's taxonomy (Bloom, 1956). Although this taxonomy generally centers around cognitive goals, components of creative thinking such as awareness, flexibility, originality, fluency, intellectual playfulness, self-confidence, persistence, flexibility, non-conformity, and elaboration can be integrated by the knowledgeable early childhood educator.

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RURAL EDUCATION - A SLEEPING GIANT IS STIRRING

by

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On May 29 through May 31, 1979, a national seminar on rural education was held at the University of Maryland. On July 19, 1979 Deputy Commissioner Thomas K. Minter of BESE wrote a letter to all regional commissioners of BESE. The first paragraph of this letter is as follows:

> "The condition of education in rural areas is a major concern of the Bureau of Elementary and Secondary Education. There is some evidence that rural youth and adults do not receive a quality education and, in many instances, Federal educational policy and legislation contribute to this inequity. I need to learn more about the local and regional nature of this apparent inequity and what we might do to alleviate it at the Federal level.

Included in this letter was the announcement that regional meetings will be held to provide the Bureau with grassroots judgements on the validity of the recommendations that surfaced from the national seminar. Subsequently, a rural education round table discussion has been held in the ten regions. The reactions of the round table discussions in each region concerning the recommendations created at the national seminar have not been published at the time this article was written.

Twenty-eight recommendations came from the national seminar on rural education. Four of these recommendations appear to have the potential for making rural education a major educational thrust in the 1980's. Briefly these four recommendations are as follows:

1. The President should issue an executive order directing the examination of existing and pending educational policies, legislation and regulations to eliminate any discrimination against, or neglect of, rural populations.

2. A federal interagency coordinating body should be established to facilitate the concentration of responses to rural needs....

3. An office for Rural Education should be established within the Education Division of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (DHEW), and each of the agencies and regional offices within the Education Division should appoint at least one Rural Educational Officer to work with that office.

4. Federal legislation should be enacted to enable rural areas to overcome problems that are unique to rural education of these are not adequately addressed by correcting the inequities in present legislation, regulations, and programs. Such legislation would be called the Rural Education Act.

The Time May Be Ripe for Rural Education

American education has often been criticized for always being reactive. Perhaps this criticism is often appropriate since the educational establishment often finds itself reacting to proposed changes rather than proposing changes. If rural education is indeed a sleeping giant just waiting to be awakened, then educators may have both the time and opportunity to be active in the creation of rural education legislation.

We are suggesting not only that educators must become aware of the potential of rural education in the 1980's but begin making plans to become an active force in the creation of any rural education legislation. It is entirely possible that if we wait until legislation is passed we will again be playing a reactive role. Our concern for immediate active involvement rests with our assessment of the climate for federal involvement in rural education.

It is no secret that the current involvement of BESE in the area of rural education is partly motivated by rural legislators in Washington, D.C. It is also no secret that we are moving into a significant election era and the rural vote may indeed be recognized as most critical to certain candidates. This being true, we may discover that action on a Rural Education Act may move at a near record rate.

In addition to the favorable political environment we are faced with the fact that urban education has received considerable favorable attention the last few years. There are urban commissions and urban departments both at the federal level and at the state level. There is, however, a noticeable shortage of rural commissions and rural departments at both levels. Those who are supportive of a movement towards a federally supported rural education program will surely not miss the opportunity to point out the recent interest in and support of urban education.

In light of this evidence, it is our opinion that not only is the time ripe for rural education but the opportunity has been seized and the movement is underway. It is only a matter of time before a rural education act or something very similiar becomes a reality.

Is Rural America Ready for A Rural Education Act?

One cannot seriously question the fact that American education needs additional support from a variety of sources in order to make progress towards our ultimate goal of an adequate education for all students. Most assuredly P.L. 94-142 has provided support towards this goal even though

it has often complicated the lives of administrators and teachers. Without question, P.L. 94-142 has complicated the lives of rural administrators and teachers more than the urban educators since the rural educator often has access to fewer support services. When one looks only at the complications of P.L. 94-142, one might suggest that education was not ready for P.L. 94-142. Others might suggest, however, that education would never have been ready.

Since P.L. 94-142 is a fact of life, it is really immaterial to argue whether or not education was ready for it. But if we are critical of P.L. 94-142 from the standpoint that not enough ground work was laid prior to the enactment of the public law, then we should take time to lay the appropriate ground work for a rural education act.

We think that it is quite conceivable that a rural education act may be enacted before the needs of rural American, which are supposed to be met by the act, are even identified. During the round table in Kansas City, it was frequently asked "what are these special needs that must be met by a rural education act?" and every time the answer was so general that specific goals of such an act were left in doubt. Unless someone somewhere quickly identifies the educational needs of rural America, we may have a rural education act to meet yet to be identified needs. This would not be a problem if the initial rural education act is designed for a study of the educational needs of rural American. It is doubtful, however, if this will be the case.

Is Rural American Ready for Federal Legislation?

Within the past two decades considerable reorganization of school districts have taken place in several states. Those of us who lived through the reorganization of schools in Kansas vividly remember how painful the process was for nearly all concerned. Many rural Americans who lived through such reorganization may have serious reservations about a rural education act even though there is no evidence that those supporting a rural education act are interested in school consolidation. Quite to the contrary one of the recommendations coming from the seminar at the University of Maryland recommends that the federal government should assess the wisdom of school consolidation policies in relation to the impact of rising fuel costs and shortages on school transportation. If our past experiences with rural America concerning school reorganization are valid, then we can say with some authority that rural America would generally support a reassessment of the concept of school consolidation.

While rural America might support the reassessment of the concept of school consolidation, would they support this kind of assessment at the federal level? We sense that this is a legitimate question as we feel confident that rural America is most interested in local control. Most assuredly rural America would be more comfortable reassessing the concept of school consolidation in their local school building than having people in Washington D.C. do the assessment for them.

Our experiences would also lead us to believe that state departments of education would also prefer that reassessment be made at the local state level. Although rural Americans may be more comfortable with state government, they are also distrustful of state government. The question of what constitutes local control may also be needed as we explore this whole question of whether or not rural America is ready for more federal legislation. Elected officials at the federal and state level often feel, as do the people that they employ, that government must take care of people. This attitude may demonstrate a lack of confidence in the American people to manage their own affairs. As we consider a potential rural education act, we must decide whether the act will allow people to better meet their own needs or will it attempt to dictate to people what they need? This question appears to be critical!

Is Rural American More In Need of A Rural Development Act?

Whether or not rural American is ready for rural education act may depend to a large degree on how we answer the preceeding questions. But regardless of how we answer the preceeding questions, we must bear in mind that the needs of rural American, like the needs of urban America, are not centered totally within the educational domain. Rural America, again like urban America, is frequently faced with poverty, inadequate health services, high unemployment, inadequate transportation, and an educational program which may be inappropriate for the students it serves.

Rather than a rural education act, perhaps rural America is more ready for a rural development act which would include education as well as other needed services. The recommendations from the national seminar in Maryland recognized this need as they recommended that all services supplied under a rural education act should be coordinated with all other services provided for rural America. Such coordination would certainly be warranted, however, one cannot help but think that perhaps such coordination may not take place. As we consider the general lack of coordination that often exists within present federal and state programs, this concern becomes even more realistic.

Is Rural America Ready To Solve Their Own Problems?

As members of an institution that serves a very rural portion of the State of Missouri we look at the prospect of a rural education act with mixed feelings. We can sit in our offices and perceive the Ozarks as a geographical area which has many needs. We can see the shortage of medical services, the unemployment and many other things, and we cry out for change. But when we go into the rural areas, we also can see and we are often told by many rural people that they are blessed in many ways. The more we learn about rural Americans, the more we learn to cherish their right to determine their own course. Like them, we begin to question whether others have the right to determine what they, rural Americans, need. We are concerned about a rural education act that imposes change on rural Americans, but are not concerned about an act that allows rural Americans to determine their own course.

In this sense, we are confident of rural America's ability and willingness to determine their own course since rural Americans are traditionally hardworking and resourceful people. We are equally confident that the traditional desire to take care of their own still exists within modern rural America to a great extent. Because of these beliefs we are confident that rural America is ready to solve their own problems, but we are not foolish enough to believe that they can do this without assistance in the way of human, physical, and monetary resources that could be provided through a rural education or rural development grant.

What Else Will Rural America Need?

If we desire that rural American should solve their own problems in unique ways that make sense to rural Americans, then we must have faith in their ability and desire to accomplish this task. We must trust them to know what is best for themselves and how best to go about obtaining the desired results. Without faith and trust everyone will play the game, spend all the money, and change nothing of any consequence.